VOLUME XIV NUMBER 2

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHER

OCTOBER 1913

EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

A statement of the work of the Educational Museum of St. Louis is given as follows by the director of this museum:

Educational Museums

The Educational Museum of the St. Louis public schools has now been in existence for six or seven years and is providing a service of increasing importance to schools by furnishing various kinds of teaching materials for use in schoolrooms. The collections are stored in a central warehouse, are made accessible to the individual grade teacher by a catalogue, and are sent out on requisition. The demand for exhibits is growing rapidly as is evidenced by the following figures: 26,123, 1909–10; 38,803, 1910–11; 50,042, 1911–12.

A similar statement is clipped from the *Register* of Des Moines, Ia., indicating that the movement of equipping schools with concrete material is spreading:

The Des Moines public schools will have an educational museum according to an announcement made yesterday.

The museum which will be established at a central station, probably at the Garfield school building, will be transferred from school to school when desired for supplementary classroom work. It will be so arranged as to be of interest to older persons. The American Society of Physical Research will aid Des Moines in the establishment of this permanent museum of mineral, animal, and plant life.

The museum will revolutionize the study of geography in the public schools. Formerly when a pupil studied the products of Iowa he depended upon a book to tell him that this was a great corn state but could, in emergency, produce its share of wheat and other things. He recited from the book and promptly forgot it.

In the future the teacher will turn in an order for the chief products of Iowa. There will be a relief map to show the topography, and the children

begin by reasoning out what ought to be the industries of the state. They will take into consideration the climate and soil and the facts they have learned of neighboring states. They will naturally decide that Iowa produces corn and wheat or will decide or be told that it mines large quantities of soft coal. Here is an opportunity for a lesson on corn. It may happen that all of the coal and wheat exhibits are in use elsewhere.

The teacher will have a great deal of latitude in the selection of the point which she wishes to emphasize, and in this way a small number of sets of each material can be made to serve the sixty-eight schools. The friends and enemies of wheat and corn—insect pests and the birds that destroy these insects—will be studied. This brings in the bird and entomology collections.

The teacher sends in a request for mounted specimens of the birds that frequent the corn fields. There is the crow that pulls up the young corn for the sake of eating the sprouting grain. Then there will be the meadow lark, the thrush, and the quail.

Improving the Teaching Profession

The following note, extracted from the bulletin issued by the Bureau of Education on *Special Features in City Schools*, is of general interest because it deals with the problem of the professional standing of teacher and the returns which can be made to teachers for their services in forms other than through the increase in salary. Superintendent Brubacher, of the schools of Schenectady, reports that in order to promote the standard of teaching the teachers of Schenectady are allowed a sabbatical year for study and travel with one-third payment of salary. The conditions are as follows:

The teacher must map out a course of study in some recognized institution of learning and have it approved by the superintendent of schools in advance. In cases of travel her itinerary must be approved in the same way. A teacher may have such sabbatical year once in ten years and in exceptional cases once in seven years.

Each teacher accepting such leave of absence agrees to teach in the Schenectady schools for at least three years. If she fails to return after the leave of absence she refunds the amount of salary advanced. If she leaves after less than three years' service she refunds a pro rata amount of the salary advanced. These provisions have been accepted by many of the Schenectady teachers.

Such a device for making the teaching profession attractive undoubtedly is wise in all respects. It gives teachers the kind of training which will increase their efficiency, and at the same time gives them a privilege which will be appreciated by many who can

afford to take advantage of the temporary reduction in salary if they feel sure that they can come back to an assured position in the schools that they have been serving.

The same bulletin gives several statements from different parts of the country with regard to the grounds on which teachers may be promoted, including among other qualifications professional ability and length of experience. Superintendent J. H. Risley, of Owensboro, Ky., presents the following classification which may be selected as worth quoting in detail:

CLASS C

To be eligible to class C, a teacher must have the following qualifications:

1. Graduation from an accredited high school or recognized equivalent.
2. A minimum of 20 weeks' study in some standard normal school or college. The course must include some observation work or practice teaching.
3. A state or city certificate.

CLASS B

To be eligible to class B, the teacher must have the following qualifications:

1. Graduation from an accredited high school or recognized equivalent.
2. A minimum of 36 weeks' study in a standard normal school or college. At least one-fourth of this work must be along professional lines and must include both observation work and practice teaching.
3. Experience of 27 months or more in Owensboro city schools or schools of equal standing.
4. A success grade of 85 or above.
5. A state or city certificate.

CLASS A

To be eligible to class A, the teacher must have the following qualifications:

1. Graduation from an accredited high school or recognized equivalent.
2. Graduation from an accredited normal school or college requiring at least a two years' course above the accredited high school. One-fourth of this work must be along professional lines and must include at least 20 weeks of observation work and practice teaching.
3. Experience, 45 months or more in Owensboro schools or schools of equal standing.
4. A success grade of 95 or above.
5. A life state diploma or certificate.

Class B carries $15 more per month than class C for grades 1, 5, 6, 7, 8, and $12.50 more for grades 2, 3, 4.

Class A carries $10 more per month than class B for grades 1, 5, 6, 7, 8, and $7.50 more for grades 2, 3, 4.

U. OF ILL. LIB.

The only feature of this classification which does not commend itself to immediate approval is the discrimination against grades 2, 3, and 4.

School Social Centers

Three hundred and thirty-eight schools in 101 cities of the United States were used as social centers during the past season, according to a report compiled by Clarence Arthur Perry for the Sage Foundation. Officials of the United States Bureau of Education, who have examined the report, declare that it is bound to stimulate interest in this rapidly developing phase of the movement for wider use of the school plant.

Mr. Perry finds that in 44 of the 101 cities social centers were directed by paid workers. New York had 48 such centers and Chicago 16, while Philadelphia, Boston, Columbus, Detroit, Jersey City, Louisville, Rochester, and Trenton are also among the cities included in this list. There is wide variation in the length of the season, from five or six weeks in some localities to the full school term in others. In fact, little uniformity prevails as to what constitutes a social center. Mr. Perry presents in the report a tentative definition of a social center as follows: "A community may be said to have a schoolhouse social center if one of its school buildings is thrown open to the public on one or more fixed nights a week, for at least twelve weeks a year, for activities of a social, recreational, or civic character, regularly directed by one or more trained leaders."

The report also presents data on the growing use of school buildings for political meetings. In Cleveland, Ohio, meetings were held in the schools to discuss the new constitutional provisions that were before the people for adoption. In Jersey City the public schools were opened to partisan political meetings with gratifying results; eight public-school auditoriums in New York City were also opened for the same purpose, and in Chicago the assembly halls were employed for political rallies and proved a distinctly popular innovation. Milwaukee, Wis., and Worcester, Mass., are cities where the schools have for some time been used for political meeting places.

The use of schools as polling-places is another recent development. Thirty schools in Los Angeles were used for this purpose in 1911. In the past year Milwaukee began using the basements of school buildings as polling-places. In New York the commissioner of accounts recommended that the school buildings be used for registration booths throughout the city, declaring that the plan would mean the saving of a considerable part of the hundred thousand dollars expended for rental every year. Definite adoption of the idea of schools as polling-places is reported from Boston, Mass., Berkeley and Long Beach, Cal., Grand Rapids, Mich., Madison, Wis., and Salt Lake City, Utah.

Preservation of Health as a Profession

This autumn Harvard University and Massachusetts School of Technology will join in a school for the training of health officers. This school is not designed to do merely the work of a medical school, nor, on the other hand, will it confine itself to the training of engineers. It will issue a certificate which will be called the Certificate of Public Health. Candidates for this certificate need not necessarily have a medical degree, but it is expected that in the majority of cases a medical degree will precede the training given in this special school. Students taking the courses will be prepared to organize communities from the engineering and medical point of view for the purpose of preventing disease and for the purpose of removing all of the conditions of disease. In connection with the hygiene movement in the schools and throughout the country it is very significant that two of the leading institutions of the country should join in adopting vigorous measures for the training of a special group of officers. Doubtless communities will find it in the future quite as important to have such officers as these as to provide the regular civic officers now known in city and town organization.

A Course for Vocational Schools

The state department of education of Indiana has issued, in compliance with the requirements of the new law, a statement of those courses which satisfy the demands of this new law for industrial and agricultural work throughout the state. The book is compiled by the state department under the immediate direction of the deputy superin-

tendent of education, Mr. William F. Book. Mr. Book brings to the task the training of a scientific student. He has had the co-operation of the other members of the state department. This general outline of an industrial course will undoubtedly be scrutinized with great interest by students of the problem throughout the United States. Indiana promises to stand as the conspicuous example of a vigorous effort to solve this problem by co-operation of the state with the local schools under the general supervision of a strong state department. It is too early to pass judgment upon the courses here outlined. It will undoubtedly be of interest to many of the readers of this journal to secure copies of this statement for purposes of careful study.

Circulating Educational Library

The state department of education in Pennsylvania has prepared a special circulating library for teachers and others who are interested in educational matters. In making announcement about this library the state department calls attention to the fact that many people who are interested in education find it difficult to get the latest sources of information. Not only are teachers and superintendents desirous of this information at times for purposes of presenting the information to their communities, but laymen as well are frequently desirous of referring to recent educational literature. This literature is now to be made accessible in the form of special books, pamphlets, and even clippings and reference lists which will be supplied by the state department to all students of education throughout the state. The library will also furnish teachers w th the opportunity of continuing their professional study. The books will be circulated from Harrisburg on request sent to the state department.

State Aid

No better simple illustration could be given of the relat on between state aid and local schools than that which is presented in the following news item clipped from the *Star*, of Kansas City:

> Those Kansas school districts which have been hit hardest by the dry weather will not shorten the school terms. Kansas is insisting upon every boy and girl being allowed to attend a good school for not less than seven months in the year.

The state will pay a part of the expenses of the school districts of western Kansas where the crops have not been good this year and were not the best for the last two seasons. The state has $50,000 a year to spend helping these school districts to see that they provide a good teacher for seven months of a school term. It doesn't make any difference how many pupils there are in the district, everyone of school age is to have an opportunity to go to school whether or not there are good crops.

"Don't worry about the school money," Superintendent Ross has told the school officials. "The state wants every boy and girl to have opportunities for a good education. The state has a fund appropriated by each legislature to help out school districts in your condition. Each school district should obtain as much money as it can for school purposes. If that isn't enough to pay the salary of a good teacher and the running expenses of the school for the entire seven months the state and county will help out by paying the balance. The state pays two-thirds of whatever additional money is required, and the county will pay the other third."

The state as a whole is so much concerned with the education of the child in any district in the state that when a given district finds itself financially embarrassed it becomes the function of the state as a whole to provide the means of carrying on regular and efficient schools. Indeed the presentation of the Page bill to the Congress of the United States raises the general question whether in many respects the federal government is not related to the various states exactly as in this particular instance the state department of Kansas is related to the local communities that are not able to conduct, during the coming year, schools of a degree of efficiency to be satisfactory to the state government.

The Lengthened School Year

Superintendent L. J. Montgomery, of South Bend, Ind., reports the following details of an experiment carried on during the past summer in conducting the work of the public schools so as to lengthen the school year:

We opened all grades and high-school work the Monday following the close of regular school year and continued for eight weeks. Work was offered in every department except kindergarten and this was only because of lack of funds. Those who failed or had done rather weak work during the year were especially urged to attend this summer term, but all others were welcomed and as much individual attention was given to each pupil as possible. Classes were somewhat smaller than during the regular term. A total of 2,400 pupils were enrolled with an average daily attendance of 1,762. This large

percentage of attendance was obtained, of course, without the use of any truancy officers, which I think shows not only the great need of such work, but also the interest and willingness of children and parents. In the grades 927 credits were obtained, which otherwise would have been obtained this next semester, and in addition to this, 140 credits in high school. Seventy-five teachers in all were employed and on no day did the attendance run below 1,550. Teachers who were employed feel that the children received a great deal of help and will do much better work the following term. No great inconvenience was felt on account of the excessive heat, as we had only forenoon sessions from eight to twelve. The greatest result, and perhaps the one which is the least likely to attract attention, will be found in the better work done by the children in September. Considering the cost which is necessary to obtain such number of credits during the regular school year, the school city was saved something over $5,000 by obtaining these credits during the summer session when there was no additional expense for light, heat, and janitor service.

Ninth Year in Elementary Schools

Two news items from different parts of the country indicate the interest of elementary school officers in the general question of the upper grades. In Harrisburg, Pa., the school system is dropping the ninth year from the elementary-school course. Up to this time there have been nine grades in the elementary school. Under the new course the fifth grade of next year wi l be given some sixth-grade work to do along with the usual fifth-grade work. Each year more advanced work will be added, until in 1916 the class that will enter the high school will be made up of the present fifth and sixth grades. In many parts of the country it will seem very curious to consider the possibility of a nine-year school course. Such a long course, as indicated in the last number of the *Elementary School Teacher*, is now, however, still carried on in many quarters. On the other hand, an interesting effort to develop the elementary school beyond its present compass is reported from Hutchinson, Kan. The following statement of the case indicates the necessity in that part of the country of more work in the district schools:

Because a large percentage of the boys and girls who finish the district schools of the country do not go on into the high school, County Superintendent S. P. Rowland has decided to inaugurate an innovation in the country school this year.

A postgraduate course will be added to the district schools, and all common-school graduates who for some reason or other do not go on into the high

school can take another year of work in the district school, in the home district.

"If the pupil is going on into the high school our common-school course is complete enough, but if he is going to quit school, if this common-school course is to be the extent of his education, he should have a more thorough finishing, what we might call a postgraduate course," said the county superintendent.

This will include the regular work in arithmetic, plus a course in special farm arithmetic; and regular work in civics, agriculture, grammar, classics, and United States history, plus additional work in each.

The postgraduate course will not require any additional teachers in the schools, but will be a great advantage to the common-school graduates. They will be required to take the examination in the spring, the same as the regular graduates, and on getting a minimum of 80 and an average of 90 they will be given certificates of attainment.

There were 218 graduates last spring from the district schools of the county. Only a part of these will go on into the high school, either in the county high school at Nickerson, or in the high schools of Hutchinson or other towns.

It is for the benefit of the rest, those who will not round out their public-school education with the high-school course, that this extra year's work in the district school is intended.

Mr. Rowland will keep a close check on the 218 boys and girls who finished the district school work this spring.

"I want to find out just what they are doing, whether they are going on into high school, or quitting school entirely," said the county superintendent. "I would encourage every one to go on through high school. But if they can't, they ought, by all means, to take this extra year's work in the district school."

Such an organization of an additional grade as this makes a nine-year school of an entirely different type from that which is being discontinued at Harrisburg, Pa. There is a groove here which is to be compared to the original development of the American academy or the American high school, the elementary school providing in this case somewhat further work for those who cannot go into a regularly organized secondary school. This movement for the recognition of a local need of more popular education can properly be compared also to another movement which is widespread. The movement here referred to is that of segregating the upper grades of the elementary school into a separate school. A good illustration of this is to be found in New York City, where two of the new schools that are just being provided will be devoted entirely to the upper grades. The upper grades will be drawn from neighboring schools so as to make up here an intermediate school

for older pupils. Evidently the beginnings of a junior high-school movement are to be seen in this specialization of elementary schools in New York City.

The Boy Scout Movement

The President of the United States has interested himself during the summer in the Boy Scout movement. He is the honorary president of this organization and in that position has sent to all the boys who are beginning school work this autumn the following message:

THE WHITE HOUSE
WASHINGTON, D.C.

Boys' Life, 200 Fifth Avenue, New York City:

My warmest greetings to the boys on their return to school. May the year bring them every good thing and strengthen them in all the ideals of their service. It is a pleasure to me to be their chief, because I know that good citizens without number will come out of their ranks to counsel and serve the country we love.

WOODROW WILSON

The Boy Scout committee asks that this message be read as widely as possible in all the schools so that boys may feel the influence of the President's interest in the work which they are doing.

The publication issued by the Boy Scout movement known as *Boys' Life* is full of valuable and stimulating information for boys. The September number gives advice on how to deal with fires and panics. It also gives a very interesting and clear statement of the cost of public schools in the United States and the reasons why a boy should seek an education. There is an article on how to influence boys to deal with the problem of "cribbing" in the schools and an account of the Gettysburg experiences of some of the Boy Scouts who were present during the celebration of the summer.

In general it may be said that the literature which is being produced by the Boy Scout movement cannot be neglected by any teacher who is interested in surrounding the boys in his school with wholesome influences of the type cultivated by this movement.

FACTS ABOUT THE WORKING CHILDREN OF CINCINNATI, AND THEIR BEARING UPON EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS

HELEN T. WOOLLEY
Cincinnati, Ohio

This paper deals with the following series of facts about the working children of Cincinnati: the number who have left the schools to go to work each year since records have been kept; a classification of the children who left during the year September 1, 1911, to September 1, 1912, showing the type and location of the schools from which they come; their age, their sex, and their school grade; a tabulation of the kinds of occupations they engaged in; a study of wages; and an investigation of economic necessity as a factor in child labor.[1]

The office which issues working certificates in Cincinnati is—like all similar offices in Ohio—a subdivision of the office of the Superintendent of Schools. When the Child Labor law of 1910 went into effect, a bureau of research to investigate various phases of the problems of child labor, vocational guidance, and industrial education was formed through the agency of Miss M. Edith Campbell of the Schmidlapp Bureau, and Mr. E. N. Clopper, of the National Child Labor Committee. Mr. Schmidlapp contributed half the funds for this new bureau, and a group of public-spirited business men made up the other half. To this Bureau, which we sometimes call the Vocation Bureau when pressed for a name, Mr. Dyer, who was then superintendent of schools, turned over the management of the work certificate office.

[1] The tabulations presented in this paper are the work of many hands. For the original classification, month by month, I am chiefly indebted to volunteer workers—Miss Lisette Friend, Miss Claire Nelter, and Miss Alice Eichberg. Another volunteer worker, Mrs. Agnes Senior Seasongood, did most of the work of tabulating wages. Miss Rose Rankins and Mr. William Spencer, of the office force, made out and verified the final tables. Miss Louise Boswell, with the assistance of Mrs. Charlotte Rust Fischer, both of the office force, made the study of economic necessity as a factor in child labor.

The scope of the investigation includes, first, working out a good office system[1] to accord with the provisions of the new law, and keeping careful records to show the effect of the law; and secondly, carrying out a comprehensive investigation with a limited series of children, an investigation which involves a study of their physical and mental growth under conditions of industry, a study of the industries in which they are employed, a careful and detailed industrial history for each child studied, and an investigation of the homes. The present paper deals only with results obtained in working out the system for the office, not with those of the special research.

The Child Labor law of Ohio, requires that a child shall be at least fourteen years of age,[2] and shall have completed the fifth grade in school before he is allowed to begin work. Each work certificate must be issued to a definitely named employer, on the authority of a contract signed by that employer. When the child changes his position, the previous employer is required to return the certificate to the issuing office, which then reissues it to the new employer upon the receipt from him of a signed contract. These regulations thus give the work certificate office a large measure of supervision of all working children until the sixteenth birthday, when a certificate is no longer required.

Through careful co-operation with the schools, the truancy department, and the factory inspectors, the law is well enforced, so that we feel confident that the records in the office are now fairly complete for all the working children of the city under sixteen years of age. The office is keeping not only the necessary records, but many additional notes with regard to wages and conditions of employment. Only a small part of the information on our cards has as yet been tabulated, but enough facts to be of interest, and we hope of value, to teachers, are now at hand.

NUMBER OF WORK CERTIFICATES ISSUED EACH YEAR SINCE 1904

The old books used in issuing certificates, containing a stub for each certificate issued, are in the possession of the office, and

[1] For a more detailed account of the method of administering the Child Labor law, see *The Survey*, August 9, 1912.

[2] In August, 1913, a new law went into effect which raises the age to sixteen for girls and fifteen for boys. The school grade was raised proportionately.

the figures presented are taken directly from the books. The first records are dated, March, 1903. The number of certificates issued during the first sixteen months was 1,018, a number so small that it means no attempt to enforce the law. The continuous record begins in September, 1904, and the numbers for each year, from September 1 to September 1, are as follows:

1904–5	2,550	1908–9	2,856
1905–6	2,623	1909–10	3,348
1906–7	4,218	1910–11	2,800
1907–8	2,053	1911–12	2,366

The totals for the years previous to the year 1908–9 are of doubtful significance, since during that period there was very little systematic effort to enforce the child labor laws. The state factory inspector spent several months of the year 1906–7 in Cincinnati investigating the conditions of child labor, and with the assistance of the truant officers, he sent to the certificate office a large number of children who had been working without certificates—hence the very large number of certificates for that year, 4,218, which is almost a thousand more than in any other year. The very small number issued in 1907–8, 2,053, is thought to be the effect of the panic, which closed so many industries, thus lessening the chances of employment. From 1907–8 to 1909–10, the numbers increased again, an increase due to the two factors of greater business prosperity and better factory inspection. From the year 1909–10, down to the present time, one can be sure that the numbers correspond closely to the number of children actually at work. The drop from 3,348 in 1909–10, to 2,800 in 1910–11, is the effect of the Child Labor law which went into effect in July, 1910. This law reduced the number of eligible children by establishing a higher educational requirement (i.e., the completion of the fifth grade in school). It also limited the number of children to the number of available positions, since it required every child to present a written promise of work before he was allowed to take out a certificate. At the same time, it served to decrease the number of positions open to children. Many employers preferred to dispense with juvenile labor, rather than to bother with signing cards, returning certificates, and making reports about the children.

The establishment of the compulsory continuation schools in September, 1911, reduced the number of working children still further—to 2,366 in 1911–12. The continuation school acted in two ways. It reduced yet more the number of positions open to children, since some employers are unwilling to excuse the children from work for the required four hours a week of school. The regulation which exempts children who have completed the eighth grade from attendance on continuation schools, gives a practical value to the completion of the grammar-school course which serves to hold many children in school for that purpose. An increase in the proportion of children who had completed the eighth grade from 13 per cent in 1910–11 to 19 per cent in 1911–12, demonstrates this tendency. Doubtless the greater number of fifteen-year-old children (22 per cent in 1911–11 and 27 per cent in 1911–12) is another expression of the same fact. It is probable that when the readjustment to the new requirements is complete, the total number of certificates issued will increase again. The first few months of the year beginning September, 1912, show an increase in numbers over the corresponding months of the previous year. It will be interesting to see whether the totals under the new system will, within a few years, equal the totals under the old.

STATISTICS FOR THE YEAR 1911–12
(Table I; Charts I, II, III, and IV)

The statistics for the year 1911–12 have been tabulated more in detail, and more accurately, than those for any previous year. Cross-classifications were made which served as checks on one another, and insured absolute correctness. The important facts are as follows:

The type and location of the schools from which the Working Children came, and the sex and age of the children (Table I; Charts I, II, III, and IV).

Of the 2,366 working certificates issued during the year, 1,996, or 84.4 per cent, were to children from the schools of the city of Cincinnati, and 370, or 15.6 per cent, to those from schools outside of the city (Chart I).

There is but a slight difference in sex, 52.8 per cent boys and

TABLE I

SHOWING THE TYPE AND LOCATION OF THE SCHOOLS FROM WHICH THE WORKING CHILDREN CAME, AND THE SEX AND AGE OF THE CHILDREN

Month	Cincinnati Schools										Other Schools										Grand Total
	Public					Parochial					Public					Parochial					
	Boys		Girls		Total	Boys		Girls		Total	Boys		Girls		Total	Boys		Girls		Total	
	14	15	14	15		14	15	14	15		14	15	14	15		14	15	14	15		
September	85	33	62	18	198	62	17	49	10	138	5	5	13	9	32	3	6	14	2	25	393
October	47	19	37	20	123	40	5	38	8	91	3	3	7	2	15	5	1	17	4	27	256
November	28	16	29	15	88	29	4	29	7	69	3	3	4	6	16	3	2	8	0	13	186
December	15	6	13	7	41	14	4	18	2	38	1	2	3	6	12	4	0	3	1	8	99
January	24	10	19	7	60	33	3	23	5	64	5	3	3	1	12	2	0	5	0	7	143
February	19	11	20	13	63	22	7	29	9	67	1	7	3	2	13	2	1	2	3	8	151
March	25	16	24	9	74	18	8	19	4	49	2	1	4	3	10	2	2	5	0	9	142
April	30	16	16	14	76	24	1	16	5	46	5	4	2	0	11	6	2	3	3	14	147
May	24	18	18	10	70	28	2	15	4	49	7	1	3	3	14	2	3	6	3	14	147
June	70	31	27	24	152	39	7	38	5	89	17	5	14	3	39	3	3	7	1	14	294
July	46	20	37	22	125	24	2	35	7	68	6	2	3	3	14	3	4	4	2	13	220
August	32	12	32	15	91	30	7	24	6	67	4	4	4	2	14	7	1	8	0	16	188
Total	445	208	334	174	1,161	363	67	333	72	835	59	40	63	40	202	42	25	82	19	168	2,366

47.2 per cent girls (Chart II). In the previous year, the girls were slightly in excess of the boys—50.7 per cent girls and 49.3 per cent boys.

The public schools furnished 1,363, or 57.6 per cent of the whole number, and the church schools 1,003, or 42.4 per cent (Chart III).

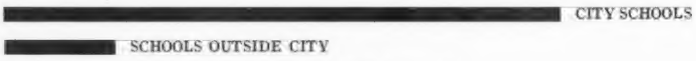

CHART I

CHART II

CHART III

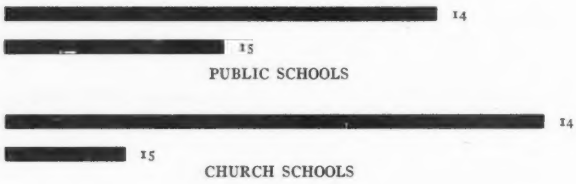

CHART IV—AGE

Since the total enrolment of the church schools is not made public, it is impossible to compare exactly the proportion of those leaving, to the total enrolment in the two cases. The usual estimate is that the public schools have at least twice and perhaps more than twice as many children as the church schools. Since the total number from the church schools is only 15 per cent less than the number from the public schools, the proportion of those leaving the church schools must be from one and one-half to two times as great as the proportion leaving the public schools. For the sake of comparisons with other cities, it may be of interest to

state that the proportion of children who left the public schools of the city to go to work was 3 per cent of the total enrolment of the grades below the high school.

Certificates may be taken out at any time between the fourteenth and the sixteenth birthdays. In making the classification of age, any child who took out his certificate before the fifteenth birthday is classified as fourteen, and any who took it out on or after the fifteenth birthday, as fifteen. Of the total number, 1,721, or 72.7 per cent, were fourteen years of age, and 645, or 27.3 per cent, were fifteen. This proportion figured separately for boys and girls remains the same to a tenth of 1 per cent. A decided difference in proportion appears, however, when it is figured separately for the two types of school. There were 1,363 public-school children, of whom 901, or 66.1 per cent, were fourteen years, and 462, or 33.9 per cent, fifteen. Of the 1,003 church-school children, 820, or 81.7 per cent, were fourteen years of age, and 183, or 18.3 per cent, fifteen (Chart III). Reference has already been made to the increase in the proportion of fifteen-year-old children from 22 per cent in 1910–11 to 27 per cent in 1911–12, but since the record has never before been made out separately for the two types of school, we have no way of knowing how this increase is apportioned between them.

THE SCHOOL GRADE COMPLETED BY WORKING CHILDREN
(Tables II, III, and IV; Chart V)

The facts with regard to the grade completed by these children can be seen in detail in Table II for the public-school children, and Table III for the church-school children. They are summed up in Table IV. If one considers only the totals including both types of school (Table IV, last two columns), it appears that approximately equal numbers came from the fifth, sixth, and seventh grades. The same relationship holds for the year 1910–11. Previous to that year, statistics are based, not upon the grade completed, but upon the grade in which the child was registered when he left school, and are, therefore, not comparable.

The analysis of grade carried a step farther to the two types of school, shows an interesting difference between them. In the case

TABLE II

SHOWING THE GRADE COMPLETED BY CHILDREN LEAVING THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS TO GO TO WORK

PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Grade	5				6				7				8				9 and 10				Total
	Boys		Girls		Boys		Girls		Boys		Girls		Boys		Girls		Boys		Girls		
	14	15	14	15	14	15	14	15	14	15	14	15	14	15	14	15	14	15	14	15	
September	38	14	18	2	23	12	21	8	21	5	19	10	7	6	16	5	1	1	1	2	230
October	12	9	5	6	12	2	19	7	15	9	11	6	11	2	9	3	0	0	0	0	138
November	9	9	11	5	8	0	11	1	12	4	8	6	2	3	3	7	0	3	0	2	104
December	8	1	6	2	5	1	3	1	2	3	5	6	1	3	2	3	0	0	0	1	53
January	13	3	5	2	9	3	12	4	4	7	4	1	2	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	72
February	7	6	11	5	4	7	5	2	6	3	4	7	3	2	2	0	0	0	1	1	76
March	9	8	11	4	10	6	10	4	4	2	2	2	4	0	5	2	0	1	0	0	84
April	13	9	5	5	15	7	7	3	6	3	4	5	1	1	2	1	0	0	0	0	87
May	6	8	4	3	19	7	12	3	3	4	2	2	2	0	3	5	1	0	0	0	84
June	21	13	6	10	24	8	16	4	19	4	10	5	20	8	8	6	3	3	1	2	191
July	20	7	16	9	10	4	7	3	12	4	7	1	7	5	10	8	3	2	0	4	139
August	6	4	16	5	8	6	12	2	8	4	3	2	13	1	5	5	1	1	0	3	105
Totals	162	91	114	58	147	63	135	42	112	52	79	55	73	31	66	46	10	11	3	15	1,363

TABLE III

SHOWING THE GRADE COMPLETED BY CHILDREN LEAVING THE CHURCH SCHOOLS TO GO TO WORK

CHURCH SCHOOLS

Grade	5				6				7				8				9 and 10				Total
	Boys		Girls		Boys		Girls		Boys		Girls		Boys		Girls		Boys		Girls		
	14	15	14	15	14	15	14	15	14	15	14	15	14	15	14	15	14	15	14	15	
September	13	5	8	2	12	5	21	1	23	5	17	6	17	6	15	3	0	2	2	0	163
October	12	2	15	2	16	1	11	1	13	2	22	6	4	1	7	3	0	0	0	0	118
November	5	0	5	0	14	1	12	3	7	2	14	2	6	3	6	2	0	0	0	0	82
December	7	0	3	1	4	1	7	0	4	0	9	0	3	2	2	1	0	1	0	1	46
January	13	1	4	1	11	0	6	1	5	1	10	2	6	1	7	1	0	0	1	0	71
February	5	4	8	1	8	2	8	3	5	1	12	3	6	0	3	5	0	1	0	0	75
March	3	3	3	0	6	3	6	0	8	3	9	3	3	1	6	1	0	0	0	0	58
April	1	1	6	2	11	0	6	1	12	0	3	2	6	2	4	3	0	0	0	0	60
May	11	0	3	2	6	0	8	1	6	1	5	1	7	3	5	3	0	1	0	0	63
June	9	3	14	1	5	1	13	0	14	2	10	3	11	3	8	2	3	1	0	0	103
July	5	1	4	1	7	2	6	0	5	0	16	4	10	3	12	3	0	0	1	1	81
August	9	1	7	1	6	1	9	0	9	2	6	1	12	4	8	4	1	0	2	0	83
Total	93	21	80	14	106	17	113	11	111	19	133	33	91	29	83	31	4	6	6	2	1,003

of the public school, the largest number of children—31.2 per cent—left from the fifth grade, and the numbers decreased steadily to the eighth grade. In the case of the church school, the smallest number

TABLE IV

A SUMMARY OF THE GRADE COMPLETED BY CHILDREN LEAVING SCHOOL TO GO TO WORK

GRADE	PUBLIC SCHOOLS						CHURCH SCHOOLS						ALL SCHOOLS	
	Boys		Girls		Total	Percentage	Boys		Girls		Total	Percentage	Total	Percentage
	14	15	14	15			14	15	14	15				
5	162	91	114	58	425	31.2	93	21	80	14	208	20.8	633	26.7
6	147	63	135	42	387	28.4	106	17	113	11	247	24.6	634	26.8
7	112	52	79	53	296	21.7	111	19	133	33	296	29.5	592	25.1
8	73	31	66	46	216	15.8	91	29	83	31	234	23.3	450	19.0
9 and 10	10	11	3	15	39	2.9	4	6	6	2	18	1.8	57	2.4
Total	504	248	397	214	1,363	100.0	405	92	415	91	1,003	100.0	2,366	100.0

left from the fifth grade (20.8 per cent), the numbers increased to the seventh grade, and then dropped a bit to the eighth (Table IV; Chart V). In spite, then, of the fact that the children from the

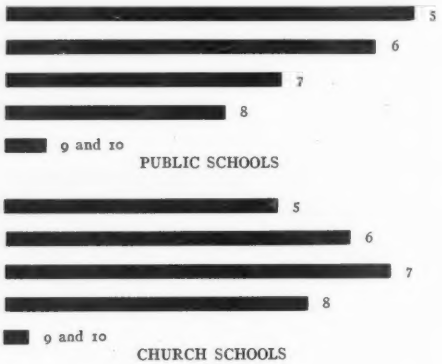

CHART V—GRADE

church schools were younger than those from the public schools, there were many more of them in the higher grades. The difference is not easy to interpret. Doubtless one element in it is the

fact that a larger proportion of the total enrolment of the church schools left to go to work than in the case of the public schools. While the public schools sent us chiefly retarded children, the church schools sent us more of the children who were up to grade. It is possible that differences in the method of grading children are also a factor in the result.

THE RETARDATION OF WORKING CHILDREN

(Table V; Chart VI)

The facts about the school grade of working children have been figured out more accurately in terms of retardation (Table V). The basis of computing retardation allows a leeway of more than a year. Only those children are called retarded who have completed the sixth grade or less at fourteen years. It is to be borne in mind

TABLE V

SHOWING AMOUNT OF RETARDATION AMONG CHILDREN LEAVING SCHOOL TO GO TO WORK

	PUBLIC SCHOOLS							CHURCH SCHOOLS							GRAND TOTAL
	Normal		Retarded		Ahead		Total	Normal		Retarded		Ahead		Total	
	No.	Percentage	No.	Percentage	No.	Percentage		No.	Percentage	No.	Percentage	No.	Percentage		
Boys	226	30.1	515	68.5	11	1.4	752	237	47.7	256	51.5	4	0.8	497	1,249
Girls	204	33.4	402	65.8	5	0.8	611	249	49.2	251	49.6	6	1.2	506	1,117
Totals	430	31.5	917	67.3	16	1.2	1,363	486	48.5	507	50.5	10	1.0	1,003	2,366

that in this case, fourteen may indicate any point between the fourteenth and fifteenth birthdays. In the same way, a child who has completed not more than the seventh grade at fifteen is retarded. A child who has completed the seventh or eighth grades at fourteen is considered normal; likewise a child who has completed a grade above the eighth at fourteen is called ahead of grade. On this basis, 67 per cent of the public-school children, and 50 per cent of the church-school children who left school to go to work were retarded. We do not know the retardation within the church schools, but within the public school during the same year, the

retardation for the group of children under sixteen years, and in the ninth grade and below, was 28.7 per cent.[1] Of this same group 67.1 per cent were normal, and 4.2 per cent ahead of grade. The

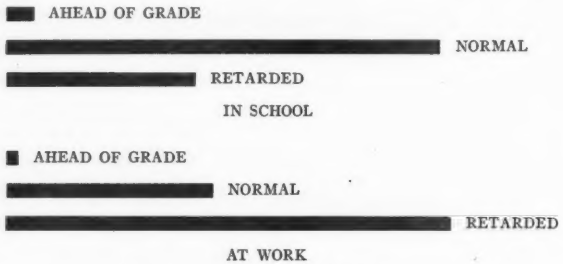

CHART VI—RETARDATION

percentage of retardation among those who leave the public school to go to work, is, then, more than twice as great as that among the children who are in school.

OCCUPATIONS ENTERED BY THE WORKING CHILDREN OF 1911–12

Let us consider for a moment what these children receive in exchange for school. Table VI shows the occupations which they entered. In Cincinnati, the shoe factories employ more children than any other one industry. Of the 2,366 children who began work during the year, 19 per cent entered shoe factories; 17.2 per cent became errand boys and girls for a large variety of business firms; 15.5 per cent went into department stores as cash or stock boys and girls, wrappers, or inside messengers; 8.7 per cent entered the tailoring and sewing trades; 6.8 per cent worked at home helping their parents; 5.2 per cent became telegraph messengers; 3.9 per cent entered paper-box factories; between 1 and 2 per cent were employed in each of the following: candy factories, office work, and private families; and the remaining 20 per cent were scattered over a wide range of occupations, no

[1] Calculated from the advance sheets of the "Age Report of Pupils for Year Ending June, 1912," from the *Report of the Superintendent of Schools of Cincinnati*, for the year 1911–12.

one of which comprised as many as 1 per cent of the children. Almost half of these miscellaneous occupations were in factories of various kinds. Eighty-seven per cent of the working children can, then, be ranged in five groups; working in factories, 33 per cent; running errands, 22.5 per cent; working in department stores, 15.5 per cent; sewing trades, 8.7 per cent, and assisting at home, 6.8 per cent.

TABLE VI

OCCUPATIONS ENTERED BY CHILDREN BEGINNING TO WORK

Occupations	Boys		Girls		Totals	Percentage
	14	15	14	15		
Department stores	111	37	160	58	366	15.5
Errands	287	87	26	7	407	17.2
Tailoring and sewing	7	4	153	43	207	8.7
Shoe factories	167	74	149	59	449	19.0
Telegraph messenger	85	38	0	0	123	5.2
Office work	21	16	9	1	47	1.9
Paper box and paper goods	6	3	67	16	92	3.9
Candy factories	3	1	23	9	36	1.5
Working for parents	24	9	84	42	159	6.8
Private families	0	0	14	11	25	1.1
Miscellaneous	198	71	127	59	455	19.2
	909	340	812	305	2,366	100

A few of the occupations on this list include skilled work—for instance the shoe factories, the sewing trades, and the department stores. In many of the factories represented, in the messenger service, and in most that is included under the head of helping at home, there is no skilled work. But even in those industries which include skilled work, the first two years of employment for those who begin at fourteen are not made periods of training for skilled work, or apprenticeships in which the industry as a whole is learned. A child in a shoe factory, for instance, is taught but one or two of the one hundred and fifty or more processes involved in making a shoe. The children in the sewing trades pull bastings, or baste one kind of a seam. Apprenticeships in the dressmaking and millinery trades are rarely open to children under sixteen. In the department stores, the children run errands inside the store, or wrap packages. Many of the best department stores

and most of the skilled trades are entirely closed to children under sixteen.

There is, then, very little that counts as training in the occupations for children under sixteen—a fact which the children themselves realize. Many of them tell us that they hope to enter trades at sixteen and are meanwhile just earning a little money. It is a conservative statement to say that only a small proportion of these children find themselves any better fitted to earn a living at sixteen than they were when they began work at fourteen. Some of them, particularly those in the messenger service, are of less value in the industrial world as a result of these two years of work.

[*To be continued*]

THE IDEALS WHICH LED TO THE FOUNDING OF THE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION.—*Concluded*

ANITA McCORMICK BLAINE

Col. Parker's school was designed to touch the lives of as many children as it could reach, with its magic wand; but more than that, to be a school of the prophets, where new light should ever be sought and found—tested and disseminated—by new minds marching on and on—drawn by the irresistible call of the children—giving new and new waves of light, in devotion to them.

It was in this part of the picture of the future that Col. Parker chiefly exulted when he came with his school within this University—the vision of the stream of young things setting forth for their life work, catching sight of the teacher's vision, coming within these gates, and his being able to add of his store to the storehouse of the University, for their preparation for a high mission.

Children were a mission to Col. Parker. To teach them, really, as they might be taught, he held out to his students as the highest mission on this earth. He could not touch the question of teaching in any other spirit.

Children were received from their parents in his school as a sacred trust. There was no dividing of territory here—no separating of functions which left the real child falling between two. The child was in himself a trinity—yes, physical, intellectual, spiritual—but one godhead.

There was no agreement for division of duties. When the child was the school's, he was one whole splendid opportunity and responsibility. It was not that the school would do all for him—but that what it did do it would do wholly for all of him—and if it did not thus help the home to do the same, in its still higher ground, it failed.

The child was considered first as a physical being. It was realized that his whole life up to the adult point is based on growth.

It is the first necessity to rate power from the physical standpoint. How unscientific we are—how dull! We take growing

things whose chief element is growth—no two of whom grow precisely alike—each one being a law unto himself—yet we rate and grade them for work by arbitrary years, and erect standards for each year by which they must toe the mark. Then we give them the totally false feeling that at such and such moments, such and such things, arbitrarily decided, must be accomplished, and we call them forward or backward as they go beyond or behind these nicely adjusted facts of our own making, and—by so doing—cut away all chance of a right adjustment by hopelessly twisting their own ideas of themselves.

The school must rate the children's work as it would fit their clothes, to their physical proportions—and then, having the right adjustment, build in all ways to conserve and increase their physical store—taking account at all points of their need for physical overflow and a chance for physical exuberance. Gymnastics and dancing and physical games, for development in different kinds, all made part of the school day.

Free periods, even for a few moments between classes, for a run, it seems to me, should be brought about.

One of the dreams of the second foundation of the school was a great playground where perhaps all of the second half of the school day could be spent out of doors in work and play.

I am sure that it is a serious and important thing for our country, with our more and more rushing life and our concentration in cities, that the schools should take big hold of the physical side of children's lives and build for the future a sturdier race than we can say we are today.

In the pedagogic field, how shall we describe Col. Parker in his school? The thought of it reminds me of a new elemental thing in its beginnings; and his exuberant joy, in the freedom and courage of his experiments, makes me think of the god Pan with his reeds —finding every day new and diviner sounds and giving them forth to the listening, waiting earth.

He set forth on his quest to overturn school methods. He had no pattern to move by. He studied under the leaders of thought in Germany in his studying days—but that only furnished him with food for thought, not with a plan. Where was the school in this country that was making departures?

In our most vital spots, as of our children, we are most conservative, perhaps to their detriment.

Col. Parker truly set forth alone. Your own John Dewey—and his—came next in time, came equal in courage and initiative, and alongside in plan.

Col. Parker broke into unploughed territory and verily broke the ground. He discarded all precedents. His school practice was determined by two factors: (1) the prime fundamental principles he clung to for children; (2) these, guided in their application, by his own fine intuitive sense for children.

Col. Parker's principles for teaching were few and clear—as I understand them.

He held that the child is the unit, for teaching—not society. He aimed for the development of the individual to all of his highest powers, to serve and to make society, not the training of individuals necessarily to fit society—the finished product of today.

He held that the child's mind is as a plant to let grow—not as a box to fill.

He held that thinking is the growth process, and developed thinking the result to attain—that there is no learning without thinking—and that, therefore, all teaching is but to put the mind in contact—real contact—with a subject in order to let the mind act. He held that a recitation without thought on the part of the child was no recitation.

He held that activity was a necessary condition of thinking and also a necessary product of thinking—therefore activity must be present in the child's attitude toward his work—and also as an outcome of his work, in expression of some kind.

He held that freedom is a necessary condition of activity, and therefore trammels must be taken away.

He held that interest is a concomitant of activity of thinking, in freedom, and therefore a test to apply to the whole. If real interest in the work was lacking, something was wrong—and then his way would be, not to sugar-coat, to tickle the palate, but to diagnose.

He held that to enable the mind to grow by thinking, it must have intellectual food; that this must be fitted in kind and variety to the child's place in his intellectual development, and chosen with a view to growth—not to filling.

The function of the teacher was to lead to the pastures green and the still waters—to spread the table—to furnish the opportunity and let the child feed and grow.

He held that the whole round world belonged to every child, and that to bring that circle aright to the child was the great realm of the teacher—not in unrelated, incoherent masses could it break on the child, without overwhelming and confusing him—but in correlated contacts, with man and nature, in ever enlarging circles, could he at last possess the whole earth.

He held that all of the child's powers should be used toward the gradual but complete possession of nature—including man in that category—and to this end, that the acquiring of all necessary intellectual tools and facilities should be in the course of this thought-building process, in order to prevent waste of energy and time.

Col. Parker would not have given up one of his intellectual dogmas for any person—but he would have given them all up for a child!

The second—but truly the chief and most final and determining factor in his school work—was his intuitive sense of child nature—what it wanted—what it needed—what dwarfed it or twisted it—what expanded it—and any preconceived ideas that did not measure, in practice, the manifest good of the children, would not have been held for a moment. He was like a gardener tending beloved plants as he went about his school—and he put his finger unerringly on the needed elements—a little more sunshine here or shade there—and the plants throve wondrously and grew apace.

What did this sense for children consist of? It is difficult to say, but into it went an unbounded belief in them—a sympathetic understanding of them and joy in them—a love of them which included them all.

In teaching, there is the intellectual element and there is the spiritual—and I think we must come to see that the spiritual must be the predominating element in the end. It must have the real ascendancy—the final decisive voice—the ultimate authority. This is most important nearest to the beginnings of life, where the foundations are laid, in the impressionable years. But I wonder if the

age comes at all, during education, when it is not equally true. With Col. Parker this was the guiding star of his whole work.

I am keenly aware, as I have tried to speak of these elements in education, that I have not stated them in technical terms. I am almost as keenly aware that I have no great wish to do so.

It is undoubtedly necessary and serviceable, when one is closely analyzing psychological processes, or pulling one nerve filament from another, to distinguish between them, to have exact technical terms for the true understanding of the matter.

But the adoption of them, without that close, urgent need of their use, is a dangerous and hampering thing. And when one is talking about the teaching of children, there are broader issues involved than these close analyses, and I have a feeling that to try to closely analyze and condense, into technical statements, matters that are too big and broad for that treatment, is to arrive at more of falsehood than of truth.

I do not think that Col. Parker stated well his principles and beliefs in education. He always said that John Dewey spoke for him better than he could speak for himself.

But he saw—and one difficulty in his promulgating what he saw, was that he said it so inadequately. But he carried out his views for the children in a marvelous fashion, and the main point for the children was not the phrasing but the doing.

Did Col. Parker hold with pride some of his intellectual dogmas?

There is hardly a point in the world where that archenemy of the best and highest good does not gain some foothold. I do not know—I could not say that he had none. It might be that his intellectual creed, like other creeds, had fences built around some of its tenets—holding some regions untouchable.

But if this were so, it boots not.

If so, it would only mean that what he held for children was so great, that it was too great for his own grasp. For the deepest fundamental principles of Col. Parker's school were on such truly untouchable ground that to put any mere intellectual theories into the same category must be to lower them.

It may be that, with a touch of pride, Col. Parker hedged about some of the lesser holdings of his pedagogic doctrine—and if so, all

would suffer from a disturbed proportion—but even if so, we cannot let that rob us of the greatness of his greatest.

The great, the pre-eminent, the undying part of Col. Parker's move in education was to free, to lift, the soul of the child—therefore the soul of humanity. I do not want to use that term in such a way that it could provoke the discussion of what is the soul, and whether there is a soul. If I could ask you, each one, to supply your own term, to mean the highest development of the inner nature of man—that is what I should like to do. I use soul only because I know no better term.

The great move in education that he made was to put that soul —that highest possible character development—as the one standard, the one aim, the one goal, of school work—its accomplishment the one final test of the work. He put his school at the disposal of that achievement. All that would further it might stand—all that would help it must be had, if possible—anything that would hinder it must be done away with.

I am afraid that Col. Parker did not live and work long enough to let us realize what that truly meant—the vital difference between that and the basis that most of our educational institutions are on—young and old alike.

They are doing the expected thing, the accepted work, and are doing, in addition, as much as they can toward improvement of the ideas in education, and of the individual pupils.

Discussion of betterings of school processes for children is very apt to come to a close with, "We would do so and so, if we could."

It does not follow that we should all be pace-setters—we may not have the conviction or the power for that. But it helps all, when one can be such. It is worth while to see what such a one is really doing. Even so much, it sometimes seems, it is difficult to grasp the full force of.

Col. Parker in his school could do all things that he was convinced were for the good of the children, because he would. And it was really doing—not only saying, or writing in a catalogue. All interests—all authorities even—himself, his whole school, and everything connected with it, were subjected to the one purpose to

find the best—the very best—thing for children—and no other purpose was admitted within the walls—to stay.

And of the best, that best of the best—the child's soul—was paramount. Neither angels nor principalities could have kept in that school a measure that would injure a child's soul, so far as its head could know it.

Of what would injure a child's soul he took all counsel—of his faculty primarily. They being his chosen counselors and in the heart of the machine, their advice was weighty with him.

All and any light Col. Parker courted from far or near. Any who could contribute thought for a child had a hearing. And from it all, and the depths of his own convictions, conclusions were reached—and then there was never a question about action.

Artificiality of every sort was swept away. The only standard that was set for a child was that child's best. The world's leaders were not brought to him as arbiters, but as friends. Each child was made a king in his own domain, and what he gave of that princely possession was a gift to all.

Discipline, as all else, was evoked from within, not laid on from without—and it was evoked wholly on the basis of usefulness to the community—the real basis.

If it became necessary at any point to protect the community arbitrarily, that could be done. It is amazing how seldom it was needed. With all the forces working toward self-control, how could it otherwise than come about—rightly and completely—developing a true responsibility?

The finest flower of Col. Parker's work was in his final appeal to the child's motive and incentive. He never allowed an appeal to be made directly or indirectly to the lower, selfish instinct of a human being in his care—unless it might be in a humor which would dispose of it, as a serious consideration, perhaps more effectually than silence.

Thus all competition—that is, of the get-ahead-of-the-other-fellow sort—was wiped out.

When he took this stand, it took more courage than it would today—although I cannot say that even today education has declared competition an outworn way.

In that day, to abolish rating marks among pupils would have been considered a step toward pandemonium. But Col. Parker would have said that even if so, pandemonium would have been better than creating greed for glory, and at another's expense.

But of course it did not produce pandemonium—the courage of the right step never does. It produced only added fervor in the pupil—greater interest in the real issue of one's work, when the false issue of its rating by someone else, in comparison with someone else, was eliminated. And competition (except in the field of the friendly rivalry of play where the gamboling spirit makes it a thing of joy!), competition took its proper place, and became competition with oneself to do ever better and better work. Vulgar, sordid competition was wiped out of existence in its selfish aspects—and co-operation came to take its place.

The question for every pupil at every turn was not, how much can I get ahead of my brother? but, how much can I help my brother to do also?

If Col. Parker's school had no other reason for existence in fact or in memory, this alone would furnish cause for its continuance —need that it should live and not die—that in one spot, in the world, credits for self were not counted up for miserly, selfish gain; inches or dots or lines or figures were not closely estimated in order to rate one ahead of another.

Competition was lost sight of in the effort to help, and to do better oneself, in order to help more—co-operation loomed up big and beautiful for a cause—for work and the joy of it—with others in a community spirit—where contribution was so diverse and so overflowing that efforts to rate it became an absurdity, efforts to increase it a joy.

Can the ideals of our school be told in words?

They flow from the purpose of the foundation. They change in shape and color—in detail—as they go forward—as a river finds new channels from its very force.

They are to build on the old—losing none of its strengths—but, with reverence, to add forever new lights.

They are to make that great art of teaching come to seem the greatest thing in the world, so that ideals may become realities in all schools.

They are to take the child—all children—and build them better bodies—keener, truer minds—and through all, at all moments and in all experiences, lead them to be finer spirits.

And the saving clause, as we think of how we cannot, perhaps, do it all ourselves, is that, as we drop even stray gems of ideals, the children pick them up and play with them and weave them into their lives to do it all better.

I feel sure that when the millennium comes, it will come to us through the ideals of our schools.

SEVEN, EIGHT, AND NINE YEARS IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL.—*Concluded*

E. C. BROOKS
Professor of Education, Trinity College, Durham, N.C.

Program IV is from the sixth grade of a school in the South Atlantic States. It is shown in table on p. 83.

Here we find an entirely different program. The grade is divided into two sections. The recitation period for all subjects except spelling is thirty minutes, and the study period thirty minutes. The total number of daily exercises for each section, exclusive of opening exercises, is six. In four of these the sections recite together, and in two, separately. This is true for every day except Friday, when the number of recitations is seven, but the two sections recite together on four subjects. Three of them, however, require no previous preparation.

This program exhibits the work of a one-session school which runs from 9 A.M to 2 P.M., with only one recess during the day. The same number of subjects is found here that is exhibited in the other programs, but they are distributed through the week, and all do not appear daily. Whenever they do come, however, more time is devoted to each. For instance, the B section devotes thirty minutes to the preparation of arithmetic and thirty minutes to the recitation, making an hour to this subject, but arithmetic appears only four times a week. In Program III fifty minutes are devoted to arithmetic, including the study period, and it comes five times a week. History alternates with geography, each coming three times a week.

Any schoolman can compare these daily programs and draw his own conclusions. Evidently this has been done already, and the results are individual rather than general conclusions. Going from the first to the last program, both the content and the organization are vastly different, and the results must be different. In these four schools the working-out of the courses of study is as

PROGRAM IV

Time	9:15–9:30	9:30–10:00	10:00–10:30	10:30–11:00	11:00–11:30	11:30–12:00	12:00–12:30	12:30–1:00	1:00–1:30	1:30–2:00
Monday	A and B Writing	A Math.	B Math.	A and B Comp.	A Gram.	B Gram.	Recess	A Geog.	B Geog.	A and B 15 15 Spelling
Tuesday	A and B Writing	A Math.	B Math.	A and B Drawing	A Lit.	B Lit.	Recess	A History	B History	A and B 15 15 Spelling
Wednesday	A and B Writing	A Math.	B Math.	A and B 15 15 Spelling	A Gram.	B Gram.	Recess	A Geog.	B Geog.	A and B Drawing
Thursday	A and B Writing	A Math.	B Math.	A and B 15 15 Spelling	A Lit.	B Lit.	Recess	A and B Music	A History	B History
Friday	A and B Writing	A and B Comp.	A History	B History	A and B 15 15 Spelling	A and B Music	Recess	A Geog.	B Geog.	A and B Drawing

different as if they came from different nations with different purposes and ideals. The first school presents twelve different subjects, placing much emphasis on arithmetic, and about equal emphasis on all other subjects. The organization of the day's work is such that the child has very little time for private study or individual work. He has little opportunity to try his strength. The excessive number of recitations makes it impossible for him to prepare all the work out of school, and little opportunity is given for preparation in school. Such a condition makes it necessary for the teacher to aid considerably in the daily preparation.

In the second school the number of subjects is somewhat reduced. Here we find eight subjects emphasized, but there are six other periods when the classes are engaged in some kind of work or exercise; and, notwithstanding the reduction, the number of recitation periods is about the same, if we include gymnastics and general work as a recitation period. So the attempt is made to get in the same number of subjects, or to make the content about the same. In order to do it the recitation period is reduced, ranging from ten to twenty minutes, with the same time devoted to study. Notwithstanding the two sections, it would appear from the short recitation periods that they are kept about together.

The third school swings still farther away. Here the content is materially different. Five subjects are emphasized, and fifty minutes are devoted to each. The other three subjects require little or no preparation. One of them is included in the opening exercises. The fourth school resembles to some extent the third type; but it makes the difference between the extremes still more pronounced.

These four types are not confined to sections or localities. Take New England for instance. In one school we find nineteen daily recitations in the third grade, while another, less than two hours' journey, almost the next neighboring town, has only five daily recitations for the same grade. If we go west of the Rocky Mountains we could spend the morning in a school with only five daily recitations in the eighth grade, and in the afternoon of the same day visit another with twelve daily recitations in the same grade. If we should come south we can select a school with four

daily recitations in the fifth grade, and almost within speaking distance select another with ten daily recitations in the same grade. Likewise we find the one-session plan as well as the two-session plan in different parts of the country. The size of the town, the age of entrance, and the length of the grammar school have little influence on the number of daily recitations.

This is not the only interesting aspect of the grammar school, and here again we could make some classifications: (1) Those schools that begin with only three or four daily recitations in the first grade and increase the number each year until we find in the eighth year eleven and twelve daily recitations; (2) those schools that begin with a large number like fifteen, eighteen, or nineteen, and reduce the number gradually to four or five in the eighth grade; (3) those that retain the same number in all grades. Some run four or five throughout the eight grades, while others run as many as eleven and twelve; and again we are unable to make a local application of these several divisions, for we find them in every section of the country.

I wish to notice only one other classification: (1) Those that devote only about two and one-half hours a day to the first grade and gradually increase the length of the day until it registers about five hours; and (2) those that have the same length of day for each grade. And thus we might go on classifying until we have as many classifications as there are schools.

III. THE PROMOTION OF STUDENTS

In the long run of years from the first grade to the last year of the high school, this question naturally arises: What opportunity is given students to pass from one grade to another? All admit that a seven-year-old child will reach the high school ahead of the six-year-old child, and the six-year-old child ahead of the five-year-old child. The amount of work for each grade is different in different schools. If in the fifth grade of one school there are five different subjects daily, and in the fifth grade of another school twelve different subjects daily, what is the relative standing of these two sets of pupils? Suppose this difference continues, and we find that it does, through the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades,

there is necessarily a better opportunity for the former set to reach the high school earlier, and to know more of these five particular subjects than the students of the other school, for more than twice the time is devoted to them. If these five subjects should be reading, language, mathematics, history, and geography, the former students would probably be better able to continue these subjects through the high school than would the latter, for they would have more knowledge of them when they enter the high school. But this in itself is not the greatest blessing; for another group of subjects might be selected that would enrich the life of the pupil just as much and give him a background that would be just as helpful in pursuing the high-school work.

This question may be asked: What influence do these systems have on the mental habits of the child? Do they all give him power and skill as well as knowledge? Is it better to present short lessons on many subjects? Or, in other words, is it better to know a little about many things than much about a few things? Which produces more knowledge, power, skill, and character?

When a child has twelve recitations without a break, less the recesses, the teacher must necessarily do the greater part of the work for the child. She drops into the lecture method or the telling method and does much that the child should do unaided and alone. And whenever and wherever this is done, the child is robbed of a certain amount of mental activity, and he is thereby the weaker, since he is deprived of the skill in doing things and the pleasure that come to one conscious of the fact that he is doing things.

As a rule the method of advancing pupils from one grade to another is by semiannual promotions; but this fact conveys very little information. In the first three schools mentioned above we find semiannual promotions. In the school with thirteen daily periods we find ten minutes devoted to history; and in the school with eight periods we find twenty-five minutes devoted to the same subject. In the one a broad curriculum is run eight years, in the other a narrow curriculum is run eight years.

The older schools when they were established had probably only a few subjects for the child to study. We know something about the history of the course of study, since the last twenty-five

years have crowded a number of new studies into the curriculum. They have been forced in, so to speak, and the schoolman in many instances, not knowing how to make his selections, nor how to group his subjects, has put them all in the curriculum, and has given them all equal importance. By degrees the study period has been taken away, and the child is put through the mill of nineteen daily recitations. It is impossible, then, for one child to proceed faster than another. The content has choked the organization. The length of the term has been increased from six years to seven years, to eight years, to nine years, in order that they all may go through together and the wonder to me is, when I observe the crowded curriculum, that it is not ten years, eleven years, twelve years, and so on indefinitely. But the study of child development has taught us this, that a child when it reaches thirteen or fourteen years of age is capable of doing work found in the high school, and this has probably stopped the lengthening of the grammar school.

The old teacher confined the school to mere getting knowledge. All teaching reduced itself to an examination of the child's knowledge, to be sure that it got the exact amount prescribed, and there was generally a stern incentive to meet the demands. In the growth of the graded schools a new idea entered, that of assimilating what has been acquired. Many of the graded schools then swung to the other extreme and ceased to emphasize the value of the self-activity of the child in acquiring knowledge, losing sight of the fact that its mental activity in acquiring knowledge within the scope of its experience and understanding will so facilitate the assimilation of this knowledge that much less extra assistance from the teacher is necessary. The child by its own efforts makes the teacher's efforts much more fruitful. The immature mind has many ways of developing itself through its own reactive power. It responds to numerous stimuli from without, and many of the strongest stimuli can come to the child when it is not on recitation. This fact is ignored by many of the schools, which have followed the line of least resistance in securing knowledge, being led far afield by that *ignis fatuus*, the doctrine of interest, and leaving the child basking in a lazy sunshine of soft pedagogics.

In tracing the course of study as it works through the grades, another very interesting fact is noted. Here are two schools, each claiming to be eight years in length. It is not unusual to find the content of the third grade of one in the fourth grade of the other, and if we trace them into the eighth grade we notice that the differences vanish, and they march together through the last year. Equal lengths here would appear to be the result of imitation. If we compare the course in a seven-year school with that of an eight-year school we shall find in almost every case that the course in the fourth year of the one is nearly or quite a year higher than that of the other, which leads me to quote what one superintendent of a seven-year grammar school says: "About two-thirds of the pupils entering my first grade are held two years in this grade." This is really an eight-year school labeled a seven-year school. Suppose we take this curriculum that requires two years for two-thirds of the pupils (this is in the state of North Carolina where pupils enter at six) and put it in a Massachusetts school, where students enter at five years of age, and where a large percentage of the first-year pupils come from homes where the English language is barely spoken, and I suspect that the difference in the time of working out this curriculum through the grades would be more than a year. It is impossible to discuss here the influence of foreign-born population on the school. There seems to be, however, no general plan, really no guide save the personal opinion of the superintendent, possibly influenced by some favorite school or schoolman.

A very interesting fact in studying the progress of pupils through the grades is the absence of anything like definite information; yet from that furnished we find the widest possible variations. Many schools can tell the number of pupils that repeat as much as or more than half of a grade, and lose a year or more; but only a few have any information about the time gained. In one school, 25 per cent of the pupils repeat a year's work, and the superintendent, although he has a seven-year course, prefers an eight-year course. Another school shows that 30 per cent of the pupils gain a year, yet this school has an eight-year course and prefers an eight-year course. And instances like these might be multiplied indefinitely.

An interesting situation is found in one western school. In the first grade, 50 per cent repeat a year; second grade, 40 per cent; third grade, 30 per cent; fourth grade, 25 per cent; fifth grade, 20 per cent; sixth grade, 15 per cent; seventh grade, 10 per cent; and eighth grade, 5 per cent. Here we find an eight-year grammar school. We find similar conditions elsewhere, although the percentage is not quite so large. In a certain Pennsylvania school, 39 per cent gain more than a year, while 15 per cent lose more than a year. Here the length of the grammar school is eight years; but, in another school of the same state, 20 per cent lose on an average a year's work; but the length here is seven years. In one school in Massachusetts the length is nine years, and 20 per cent lose a year, yet the superintendent prefers an eight-year course. In a southern school we find another peculiar situation. In the first grade, 6 per cent lose a year; second grade, 6 per cent; third grade, 7 per cent; fourth grade, 6 per cent; fifth grade, 16 per cent; sixth grade, 16 per cent; seventh grade, 25 per cent. And a number of instances similar to this might be quoted.

All of this seems to prove nothing except that the individual superintendent has various and sundry perplexing questions that beset his soul, and results are as they are because of these soul perplexities. The child, the content, the organization, aye, there's the rub! Child nature is being studied; the content of the school is being analyzed; and the organization of the whole machinery is being worked over. The three should be studied together, not separately, for it is in the combination that we detect gross errors.

SUMMARY

After observing these many facts relative to the grammar school we come back to the question, is a four-year high school that rests on a seven-year grammar school equal to a four-year high school that rests on an eight-year grammar school? If the seven-year grammar school presented only a few subjects daily to students who enter the first grade at seven years of age, and should give the students opportunity to do the greatest amount of work in these subjects and to grow as rapidly as their health and capacity would permit; and if the eight-year grammar school

should present fifteen or eighteen subjects daily; should permit students to enter the first grade at five years of age; should give the students only ten or fifteen minutes on recitation, and offer no opportunity for promotion beyond the mass; then I should say that a seven-year grammar school would be superior to an eight-year grammar school.

On the contrary, if an eight-year grammar school should present only a few subjects daily; should require steady, vigorous work of all pupils in these few subjects; and should permit students to complete the entire work as their several capacities would permit; and if the seven-year grammar school should present the other conditions—of a large number of subjects, no study periods, no possible means of advancing faster than the mass; then I should say that the eight-year grammar school would be superior. But we are unable to make any such classifications. All the evils and defects of all the schools can be found in either class—those of a seven-, eight,- or a nine-year grammar school. Again, it is difficult to tell what is a seven-year grammar school or an eight-year grammar school; for it is frequently the case that the seven-year school holds pupils in the first grade two years, while it is equally true that the eight-year school permits a large percentage of its pupils to complete the course in seven years; therefore a seven-year grammar school may be really an eight-year school, and a so-called eight-year grammar school may be really a seven-year grammar school.

But this seems to be a fair conclusion, that we do not yet know the meaning of education, and what children are capable of doing; for if it is the right process to take a class of forty pupils thirteen years of age and present the complete circle of knowledge to them in a list of subjects that numbers fifteen, eighteen, or nineteen, and to keep the pupils turning from subject to subject, giving them largely impressions and entertainment, and to prohibit all home work, then it is not the right process to confine the same pupils to a curriculum containing only five subjects, with long study periods, both in school and at home; yet both of these plans prevail to such an extent and under so many different conditions that it is next to impossible to take the results of the school and tell which is the better process.

Our personal opinions may be very pronounced. Certainly, the men who supervise these courses have personal opinions, but they are largely personal and not general. Therefore, I am leaving the question where I asked it. The answer is an individual one, not general. It may be wrong, it may be right, and there are instances enough to prove either. Let me say here that we find in every section of the country schools that seem to be working away and trying to understand the reason for the large or the small number of subjects; and the tendency seems to be toward the smaller number.

INFLUENCE ON THE HIGH SCHOOL

We come with these varying results from so many varying conditions to the high school. Here we find some uniformity. There are enough contrasts, however, to attract attention; but these are in the main confined to the city schools where the grammar school has had such a checkered career. Since the States have become alive to the necessity of public high schools there is a distinct tendency toward uniformity. This question has been thoroughly discussed, however, by Dr. Edwin R. Snyder, of Teachers College, Columbia University, in "The Legal Status of the Rural High School." Colleges for years have published their entrance requirements, and high-school men have planned their courses to meet them. This has had a tendency to carry college methods into high-school classes. And here the two extremes meet—the grammar-school methods of thirteen or nineteen recitations a day, and college methods of three or four recitations a day. So our high schools have one of these tendencies. We find them carrying six and seven daily recitations of forty to fifty minutes each. This fills the entire day, and there is no break from opening exercise to the last recitation period. This is a continuation of certain grammar-school methods. On the other hand, we find high schools carrying only three or four recitations a day, each followed by a study period. This is approaching college methods. One superintendent of an eleven-year system writes that his four-year high school can present seventeen units certainly, eighteen possibly. That means that his pupils carry thirty

to thirty-five recitations weekly, an impossible task; while another high school that has a nine-year grammar school carries in the high school only three periods daily, and takes five years to complete the courses. But the tendency is toward uniformity in high schools. Fifteen hours a week seems to be the average—that means three hours a day in the high school against five hours in the grammar school.

Another noticeable fact is that the grammar school comes up to the high school with fifteen daily recitations, and then drops to three and four daily recitations. Likewise, students come up to the high school having been accustomed to a recitation period of about fifteen or twenty minutes and then rise to a recitation period of forty-five minutes. The pupils come to the high school having had the teacher to aid in the preparation. In fact, the recitation period has been of such a nature in many instances that the teacher did the greater part of the thinking for the class until the class moved into the high school; here pupils are required to make individual preparation with little assistance from the teacher.

Taking a general view of the entire "educational ladder" from the first grade of the grammar school to the senior year of the college, we are confronted with a loss of students in the fifth and sixth grades, especially; another break comes in the first year of the high school. We notice a distinct falling-off through the four years of the high school; we are told over and over again that the character of the college student has defects sufficient to cause many writers and speakers to question the efficiency of the college. In it all and through it all this seems to be a very pertinent question: Do we yet know how to handle large numbers of students? Do we know the value of a subject, how it enters the life current of the individual, and what influence it has on the child? In making this study of the grammar school, this final question may be asked: What influence does this disorganized and seemingly purposeless work of the grammar school have on the subsequent years of the child when he is found in the high school and in the college?

BOOK REVIEWS

Helping School Children: Suggestions for Efficient Co-operation with the Public Schools. By ELSA DENISON. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1912. Pp. xxii+352.

In this carefully compiled volume, which draws its facts from hundreds of sources, Miss Denison shows the channels through which the general public in America expends voluntarily some $10,000,000 annually by way of supplementing the so-called regular work of the public schools. The book is of the type already made familiar by Perry's *Wider Use of the School Plant;* the scope, however, is much wider, inasmuch as it includes the activities of all sorts of supplementary educational agencies outside of the school plant as well. While many of the facts have already appeared in periodical literature and non-professional publications, it is the first appearance for most of them in sifted, balanced form in a carefully compiled educational volume. The work ought to be widely read.

The book enumerates the multitude of things that can be done for schools by parents and parents' associations, mothers' clubs, women's clubs, physicians, dentists, churches, business men's organizations, civic leagues, philanthropic bequests, libraries, newspapers, together with many other voluntary organizations of various types; and shows through concrete examples just how the work may be done, and the kind of results that may be expected.

The book shows that the importance of these forms of voluntary assistance is not to be measured by the amount of money expended. The $10,000,000 is only about 2 per cent of the $450,000,000 annually expended on public education—a relatively insignificant amount. Its importance is not so much in what it purchases as in the interest aroused in the community in the movements so fostered, an interest which results in large annual increases in the regular school budget.

JOHN F. BOBBITT

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Educational Administration: Quantitative Studies. By GEORGE DRAYTON STRAYER and EDWARD L. THORNDIKE. New York: Macmillan, 1913. Pp. xii+392. $2.00 net.

One of the large obstacles to progress in educational thought of the scientific type is the relative inaccessibility of its literature. It is to be found scattered through hundreds of books, bulletins, monographs, educational journals, and reports of countless organizations. It is time that this literature be sifted and summarized so that the best of all be made accessible to all, and the 95 per cent of repetitious matter be discarded.

Even the notable series of "Contributions to Educations" put out at Columbia University is mostly inaccessible to all except those in immediate contact with large educational libraries; and even then they can be used only for individual library

reference, and not for class use, where they are most needed, owing to the almost universal lack of duplicate copies, and the impossibility of the students' purchasing so many expensive monographs.

In this volume, Professors Strayer and Thorndike have sifted out the materials of essential value that relate to educational administration from about a score of these monographs, and have presented them in so compact a compass that every educational administrator can have a copy for his desk, and in such a form, too, that the busy man will have time to read it. It permits also an effective use of these materials for class discussion, since the book can be in the hands of the students as a reference text.

For the most part, the volume does not attempt to show the relations of the various topics discussed to the field of education in general, or to show general administrative perspective. It is expected that the educational administrator is already familiar with these matters, and that where the book is used as a text, comment and perspective will be supplied by lectures and readings from other books already in the field. The volume consistently adheres to its plan of presenting only the essentials of the monographs; and it makes the valuable suggestion, which we hope will be heeded, "that similar volumes will be prepared adapting for students' use the work done by other natural groups of investigators."

Five kinds of topics are discussed. Part I presents "Studies of the Students": enrolment and attendance as related to ages and grades, elimination, promotion, retardation, and variations among students. Part II is made up of "Studies of the Teaching Staff": causes and conditions of teaching efficiency, social and economic status, special supervision, secondary teachers, and the influence of sex balance upon enrolment. Part III discusses the "Organization of Schools and Courses of Study": the elementary school curriculum, relation of size of school to effectiveness, the inefficiency of college entrance examinations, studies actually taken for the A.B. degree. Part IV considers "Means of Measuring Educational Products": scales in handwriting, composition, and arithmetic, achievements, school records and reports. Part V presents studies of "School Finance": city school expenditures, relation of these expenditures to other municipal expenditures, and the apportionment of school funds.

JOHN F. BOBBITT

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

The Social Factors Affecting Special Supervision in the Public Schools of the United States. By WALTER ALBERT JESSUP. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1911. Pp. viii+124.

Where education consciously attempts to prepare for active life in the world of affairs, schools find their tasks determined by the needs of this outside world. But the latter is always changing. For some time it has been growing more complicated. This results, on the one hand, in heavier demands upon the schools in subjects already included; and on the other hand in the inclusion of many things that hitherto were satisfactorily taken care of in extra-scholastic ways. Mr. Jessup's study covers this second aspect of growth of the curricula. It is a study of the genesis of the newer subjects in our public-school curricula, and of certain aspects of the present situation as regards these subjects. The subjects considered are music, drawing, manual training, domestic science, physical education, and penmanship.

Matters considered in connection with each subject are: the origin of the social demand, whether within or without the school; the sanctions on the basis of which the subject was justified, social, industrial, psychological; typical ways in which the new matter becomes a part of the curriculum; the modifications which the subject tends to undergo because of the intellectualistic predilections of the pedagogic mind; the spread of the subject through the schools of the country; the mode of teaching, whether by class teacher, special teacher, or co-operative effort on the part of both; sex and salaries of teachers of each of the subjects.

JOHN F. BOBBITT

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

CURRENT EDUCATIONAL LITERATURE IN THE PERIODICALS[1]

IRENE WARREN
Librarian, School of Education, University of Chicago

Andrews, E. B. Education through reading. Pop. Sci. Mo. 83:139–49. (Ag. '13.)

Blaine, Anita McCormick. The ideals which led to the foundation of the School of Education. El. School T. 14:11–19. (S. '13.)

Brooks, E. C. Seven, eight, and nine years in the elementary school. El. School T. 14:20–28. (S. '13.)

Carrington, Thomas. Outdoor schools. Harp. W. 57:12. (26 Jl. '13.)

Dean, Arthur D. The new education: nature, the community, and the home are today combining with the school to train children for an industrial democracy. Craftsman 24:463–71. (Ag. '13.)

Doctorates conferred by American universities. Science 38:259–67. (22 Ag. '13.)

Gray, Mary Richards. The education of children in the school gardens of Los Angeles. Craftsman 24:472–79. (Ag. '13.)

Hanmer, Lee F. The schoolhouse evening centre—what it is, what it costs and what it pays. J. of Educa. (Bost.) 78:117–18. (14 Ag. '13.)

Harris, James H. Vacation schools. J. of Educa. (Bost.) 78:148–49. (21 Ag. '13.)

Human stock shows. Lit.D. 47:127–28. (26 Jl. '13.)

Judson, Harry Pratt. Economy in education. School R. 21:441–45. (S. '13.)

Key, Ellen. Education for motherhood. II. Atlan. 112:191–97. (Ag. '13.)

Leupp, Francis E. The progressive ideal in school management. Scrib. M. 54:388–94. (S. '13.)

Main, Josiah. Sequence of sciences in the high school. Pop. Sci. Mo. 83:158–63. (Ag. '13.)

(A) new laboratory for research in optics and photography. Sci. Am. Sup. 76:56–57. (26 Jl. '13.)

(An) open-window school. Lit.D. 47:241–42. (16 Ag. '13.)

Phelps, C. L. A study of errors in tests of adding ability. El. School T. 14:29–39. (S. '13.)

(The) traveling university. J. of Educa. (Bost.) 78:124–25. (14 Ag. '13.)

Walcott, Gregory D. The final examination of seniors in American colleges. Science 38:179–85. (8 Ag. '13.)

Wells, Frederic Lyman. The principle of mental tests. Science 38:221–24. (15 Ag. '13.)

[1] *Abbreviations.*—Atlan., Atlantic Monthly; El. School T., Elementary School Teacher; Harp. W., Harper's Weekly; J. of Educa. (Bost.), Journal of Education (Boston); Lit.D., Literary Digest; Pop. Sci. Mo., Popular Science Monthly; School R., School Review; Sci. Am. Sup., Scientific American Supplement; Scrib. M., Scribner's Magazine.